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NEED FOR LEADERSHIP:
FROM LEADERSHIP TO FOLLOWERSHIP

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NEED FOR LEADERSHIP: From Leadership to Followership

ABSTRACT

In this paper two different viewpoints regarding leadership theories are discussed. In the first, traditional viewpoint, leadership is the central focus. In the second viewpoint subordinate followership is the focus of attention. A followership-centered approach is interested in the need for leadership of subordinates, instead of mainly in the effectiveness of the leader. Need for leadership is defined as a social-contextual quasi-need. A model is presented in which need for leadership is an intermediary variable, being influenced by the substitutes for leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) on the one hand, and influencing the leadership process on the other hand. Need for leadership is conceptualized and found to be a reliable and valid construct. In a cross-sectional study it moderated the relation between leadership and criteria in 52% of the cases. Subordinate's experience and need for independence were the only substitutes constructs related to need for leadership in the expected direction. Professional orientation, task-provided feedback, organizational inflexibility, and staff support were, contrary to expectations, positively related to need for leadership. Women are found to have a higher need for leadership. Furthermore, use of Local Area Network's by companies is related to less need for leadership. Some examples of structural analyses with need for leadership are provided.

INTRODUCTION

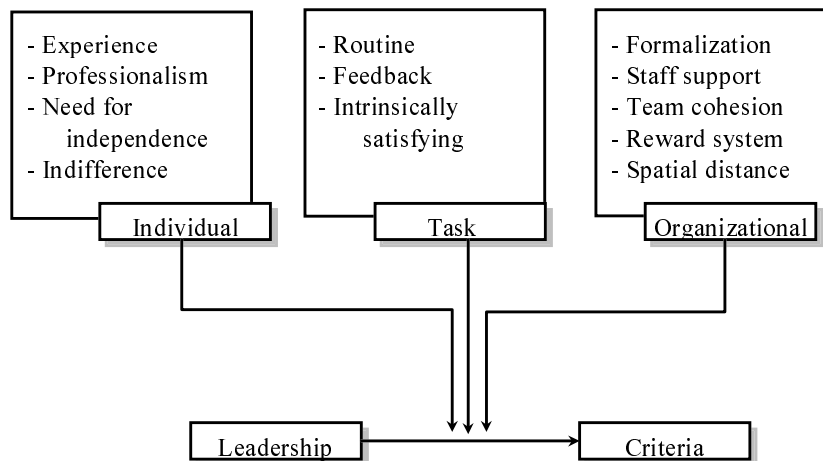
An overview of the recent literature suggests that there are three main paradigm's vying for the attention of leadership scholars. A very strong, almost 'charismatic' (but at least catching) paradigm is involved with transformational aspects associated with leadership. Since 1977 theories which have been interested in charisma, being either called charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Conger & Kanungo, 1994), transforming leadership (Burns, 1978), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass B.M., 1985; Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994), visionary leadership (Westley, 1991), inspirational leadership (Bass, 1988; den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1994) or change-centered leadership (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991), have focused on leaders who have an exceptional influence on the effort, motivation and performance of subordinates. Charisma, meaning divine gift, originally refers to individuals who are endowed with special qualities, making them standing out of the crowd. Although the debate remains whether charisma is something that resides in the person (House & Howell, 1992), whether it is a behavioral phenomenon (Conger & Kanungo, 1994), or an aspect of social exchange (Bryman, 1992) most researchers endorse the importance of charisma for organizational outcomes.

Perception theorists have not been so sure of this. According to the scholars of this second recent leadership paradigm, leadership is characterized mainly by a cognitive process (in the head of the 'subordinates') instead of a behavioral process (i.e. the acts of a leader). A distinction can be made between two types of processes in the formation of leadership perception: recognition based processes and inferential based processes. Recognition based processes are used to select and interpret ongoing social information through largely automatic categorization processes. Inferential based processes are used to reflect on past events and integrate specific, highly salient information such as performance information through controlled attributional reasoning (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987). Many studies have been devoted to leadership perception theories. Both recognition based processes and inferential based processes have been found to influence leadership perceptions. For instance, in a recognition based processes study, Rush, Thomas and Lord (1977) found that factor pattern and item loadings on the most well-known leadership questionnaire, the LBDQ (Fleishman, 1953), derived in a limited information condition, was similar to those obtained in real settings. Verification for inferential based processes is for instance provided by Rush et al. (1977), Phillips and Lord (1981; 1982), and Meindl (1990). In these studies evidence is found that (bogus) positive performance information causes subordinates to perceive their supervisor as more 'leaderlike', instead of the other way round.

The oldest of the three recent leadership paradigms is the contingency or situational paradigm. Basically the contingency paradigm argues that the effectiveness of a certain style of leadership is dependent on the situational context. The 'situational context' is a broad notion, encompassing employee characteristics, characteristics of the relation between employee(s) and the supervisor, team characteristics, task characteristics and organizational characteristics. In eleven years, five situational theories sprang to light: Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, House's (1971) path-goal theory, Vroom and Yetton's (1973) decision making theory, Hersey and Blanchard's (1974) situational leadership theory and Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership theory. Of these theories, the substitutes theory offers the most elaborate classification of situational contingencies of general leadership behavior (i.e. not restricted to decision-making behavior such as in Vroom and Yetton's (1973) theory). The substitutes for leadership theory suggests that individual, task and organizational characteristics can be found which "... negate the leader's ability to either improve or impair subordinate satisfaction and performance" (Kerr and Jermier, 1978, p. 377). Conceptually, the substitutes for leadership theory is closest to the path-goal theory of House (1971). A difference between the substitutes for leadership theory and the path-goal theory is the premise in the substitutes for leadership that in some cases leadership is irrelevant. In the path-goal theory even unnecessary and redundant leader behaviors are assumed to have an impact upon subordinate satisfaction, morale, motivation, performance and acceptance of the leader. Kerr and Jermier (1978) make a distinction between four individual characteristics, i.e. ability, experience, training and knowledge; need for independence; professional orientation, and indifference towards organizational rewards; three task characteristics, i.e. unambiguous, routine and methodologically invariant tasks, task-provided feedback concerning accomplishment and intrinsically satisfying tasks; and six organizational characteristics, i.e. organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory and staff support, closely-knit, cohesive, interdependent work groups, organizational

rewards not within the leader's control and spatial distance between superior and subordinates. The basic model of the substitutes for leadership theory is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: The substitutes for leadership model



A lot of research has been conducted on the substitutes for leadership theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Howell & Dorfman, 1981; Howard & Joyce, 1982; Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, & Huber, 1984; Howell & Dorfman, 1986; Podsakoff, Dorfman, Howell, & Todor, 1986; Farh, Podsakoff, & Cheng, 1987; Freeston, 1987; Pitner & Charters, 1988; Childers, Dubinsky, & Skinner, 1990; McIntosh, 1990; Dorfman, Howell, Cotton, & Tate, 1992; Federle & Maloney, 1992; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Fetter, 1993; Orpen & Hall, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, & Bommer, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Howell, Dorfman, Hibino, Lee, & Tate, 1995). As many authors have pointed out (Howell & Dorfman, 1986, p. 40; Williams, Podsakoff, Todor, Huber, Howell and Dorfman, 1988, p. 328; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Fetter, 1993, p. 38) the number of corroboratory findings has been disappointing. Furthermore, the few positive findings could not be confirmed in other studies. Three methodological reasons seem to account for the lack of finding moderators in the substitutes for leadership research. First, the reliabilities of the instruments used to measure substitutes were rather poor, thus augmenting the chances of a type II error to occur. In the second place sample sizes were too small to ensure sufficient power. In the third place there was insufficient variation of organizational characteristics, task characteristics or individual characteristics in most of the studies. Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie and Williams (1993) increased the reliability of the substitutes and drew a sample of 612 respondents from three different organizations, but they found only 19 out of 728 possible moderating variables to be significant. On the average the interaction-term explained one percent of the variance in the criteria. With the three methodological reasons taken into consideration, there still seems to be not much proof for the substitutes for leadership theory.

FROM LEADERSHIP TO FOLLOWERSHIP

All three paradigmas described above can be viewed as leadership-centered paradigmas. A leadership-centered theory focuses on the effectiveness of (perceived) leadership (in a certain situation). This is best shown in charismatic leadership theories, in which leadership is the central, and all important, focus. Although contingency theories have brought in several individual characteristics as contingency variables, the main question of these theories remains whether leadership is effective in certain situations or not. The perception theory comes closest to focusing on the subordinates in the leadership process, through his or her's information processing. Still, the main focus of the perception theory remains the characteristic, prototypical leadership behaviors, and in what situations these prototypical images are cued.

As a contrast, followership-centered theories focus on what the subordinate (perceives to) need from a leader (in a certain situation) and why. To obtain a deeper understanding of the leadership process, according to Hollander and Offermans (1990) it has become increasingly important to incorporate the subordinates in leadership models. Meindl (1990) points to a lack of theories fitting leader traits and behaviors with the needs and personalities of subordinates. Needs of the subordinate may thus become increasingly important in explaining the leadership process.

Some sparse research has already been conducted on followership-centered constructs. Most of these studies have focused on concepts related to subordinate's *need for leadership*. Most of these studies, though, have provided limited or no information on the definition and operationalization of the constructs used. Furthermore, the subordinate leadership needs explored, most of the time have been a small part of a wider study. Consequently, although these studies have been precursors of a promising area of research, they have not been integrated in the mainstream line of research on leadership.

The subsequent studies can be roughly divided in two types; research interested in need for supervision (cq. leadership need strength or need for clarity) and research interested in need for autonomy (cq. need for independence). Most of the time these studies have looked into the consequences of the subordinate's need on the leadership process (i.e. the relation between leader behavior and outcomes). An exception is a study by Ashkanasy and Gallois (1994). Ashkanasy and Gallois (1994) studied the effects of leader-subordinate relations on (among others) need for closer supervision of subordinates as rated by the supervisor. In a laboratory setting, 65 students high on internal locus of control (LOC) and 63 students high on external LOC supervised work groups (consisting of research confederates) under varying conditions of task complexity, supervisory control, task control and task outcomes. Failure of the confederates to successfully complete the task was positively related to need for supervision as perceived by the assigned supervisor. Both when the task was completed successfully and unsuccessfully, need for supervision was negatively related to attribution of ability and effort. Thus, with high attribution to ability and effort there was a lower attributed need for supervision.

In Ashkanasy and Gallois' (1994) study supervisory control and task control were also related to need for supervision. In a high supervisory control situation supervisors were told they had full responsibility for their subordinates, and full control over them. The low supervisory control version stated that subjects had full responsibility for the performance of their subordinates but were not to control them. In a situation of high supervisory control there was a higher need for (future) supervision as perceived by the supervisor. According to Ashkanasy and Gallois supervisors with higher levels of control appeared to have viewed their situation as normal and one to be maintained in future interactions, regardless of subordinate performance levels. Task control was divided in a high task control situation, in which confederate subordinates completed the work according to strict instructions, and in a low task control situation, in which confederates were innovative in completing the work. Opposite to expectations, it was found that supervisors in the innovation condition saw more need for close supervision than those in the strict instruction condition. Task complexity and LOC were not related to need for supervision.

From this study it can be concluded that attributed ability and effort, supervisory control and task control are all related to need for supervision. Need for supervision, though, was rated by the supervisor him- or herself. Although not clear from the article, it probably pertains to the need for supervision in order to successfully complete a task. Data on need for supervision (Martin, 1983), need for clarity (Keller, 1989), and leadership need strength (Seers & Graen, 1984) on the contrary were provided by the subordinates themselves. Martin studied the need for supervision in different settings, i.e. 154 nonmanagers from city, state, and federal agencies, 320 employees from a city department and 790 nurses from a nursing department. Although most subordinates granted that the supervisors did have some influence on their performance and admitted that no supervision would be detrimental to their satisfaction they also noted that the supervisors almost did not have any influence on the completion of their work. Martin (1983, p. 70) concludes that supervision of subordinates consumes a large proportion of the time and energy of supervisors while it is largely unnecessary to the completion of the work by subordinates.

Keller (1989) used need for clarity in the theoretical framework of the path-goal theory. According to Keller need for clarity is akin to (but opposite from) tolerance of ambiguity. Need for clarity was operationalized by items such as "How important is it to you to receive feedback on how you are accomplishing your job?" (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1974). In a study with 477 professional employees from four research and development organizations, need for clarity was hypothesized to moderate the relation between leader's initiating structure on the one hand and satisfaction and performance on the other (Keller, 1989). Need for clarity was found to be negatively related to both satisfaction and performance and to positively moderate the relation between initiating structure and both overall and supervision satisfaction. In one of four organizations it was found to positively moderate the relation between initiating structure and performance. Using the typology provided in chapter 3, it can thus be concluded that need for clarity was a reducer of the relation between initiating structure and satisfaction/performance. With higher need for clarity, a stronger relation between initiating structure and satisfaction was found, although this relation was at a lower

mean level of the criterion. Antecedents of need for clarity, though, were not provided in this research.

Leadership need strength (Seers & Graen, 1984) assessed the extend to which an employee had a strong versus weak need for a high-quality exchange relation with the supervisor. According to Emans and Radstaak (1990) this pertains to a relation which is characterized by 'adult' and 'equivalent' social intercourse. Leadership need strength thus differs markedly from need for supervision and need for clarity since it does not involve the 'need' for leadership behavior which can fill the gap between what is demanded in the task and the assets and capabilities of the subordinate. Leadership need strength, au contraire, refers to a preference for a relation which is characterized by cooperation instead of authority. According to Seers and Graen (1984, p. 301) leadership need strength might be thought as "preferences subject to change rather than stable needs characteristic of the individual". In this way, it resembles

need for leadership, because leadership need strength is also social-contextually dependent.

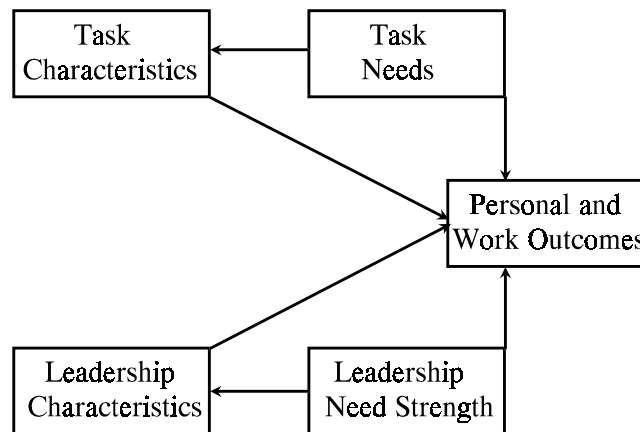


Figure 2: The dual attachment model (Seers & Graen, 1984)

Seers and Graen (1984) proposed the following 'dual attachment model' in which leadership need strength plays a role. The dual attachment model is a hybrid of the task characteristics

model (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) and the leader-member exchange model (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). It is shown in Figure 2.

Although in the model it is assumed that leadership need strength has a direct effect on the leader characteristics as well as the personal and work outcomes, it was also hypothesized that leadership need strength moderates the relation between leadership characteristics and personal and work outcomes. More specifically, it was hypothesized that the relationship between leadership characteristics and personal and work outcomes will be stronger for individuals with higher leadership needs than for individuals with lower leadership needs (Seers & Graen, 1984, p. 287). In a study of 101 respondents from a large agency of the federal government, the direct effects proposed in the model and the hypothesized moderator effects did not occur, though. Of the 15 zero-order correlations between leadership need strength and other variables in the model, only one reached significance (the relation with pay satisfaction; $r=.20$, $p<.05$), which is barely higher than chance predicts. Furthermore, leadership need strength failed to moderate the different possible relations between leadership characteristics and outcome variables. Seers and Graen (1984) note that the absence of significant findings may be due to a lack of refinement in the conceptualization and measurement of leadership need strength. Indeed, since their measure consisted of only one item, and given the power problems (low n , low reliability (and consequently validity) in leadership need strength and some outcome variables measured with only two items, thus reducing the range of the criterion) noted in chapter 3, the absence of empirical verification of the model has been hardly surprising.

In contrast with need for supervision, need for clarity and leadership need strength, need for autonomy and need for independence are constructs which refer to the extent a subordinate has a preference for being self-managing, self-sufficient and self-regulating. High need for supervision, high need for clarity and high leadership need strength presumably would be compatible with a low need for autonomy and a low need for independence. According to Emans and Radstaak (1990) need for autonomy is a construct which combines aspects of leadership need strength and growth need strength in the dual attachment model. Need for autonomy thus not only refers to leadership but also to the task. Both Emans and Radstaak (1990) and Landeweerd and Boumans (1994) have studied the influence of need for autonomy on the relation between leadership and outcome variables. Emans and Radstaak found in a sample of 86 nurses that the relation between social (i.e. human-oriented) leadership and quality of work is contingent on the level of need for autonomy. Splitting the nurses in three groups of low, medium and high need for autonomy they found human-oriented leadership to be positively ($r=.79$, $n=18$, $p=.00$) related to quality of work for nurses with a low need for autonomy, moderately positive related to quality of work for nurses with a medium need for autonomy ($r=.30$, $n=18$, $p=.22$), while this relation was absent for nurses with a high need for autonomy ($r= -.07$, $n=23$, $p=.74$).

Although, as noted in chapter 3, criticism can be raised against using subgrouping methods in moderated regression, Landeweerd and Boumans (1994) also used subgroups to assess the moderating effects of need for autonomy. Using median-splits of need for autonomy in a sample of 561 trained staff nurses they found three out of 36 subgroup (8.3%) analyses

containing the relations between nine task and leadership characteristics on the one hand and four outcome variables on the other to be significant, which is only slightly above chance. One of the significant subgroup moderating effects ($t=2.297$, $p<.05$) of need for autonomy involved the relation between instrumental leadership behavior and job satisfaction. In the group of nurses with relatively little need for autonomy instrumental leadership was more strongly related to greater job satisfaction ($\beta=.12$, $n=226$, $p=.02$) than in a group of relatively much need for autonomy ($\beta=-.03$, $n=266$, $p=.53$). On the other hand, no significant moderating effects were found for social leadership, neither were any moderating effects found with the outcome variables health complaints, experienced significance of work and absence frequency.

The findings of Keller (1989), Emans and Radstaak (1990) and Landeweerd and Boumans (1994), although subject to methodological problems, do point in the same direction. In those cases in which a significant moderator effect was detected, whenever employees needed clarity in their job or needed less autonomy, leadership was more strongly related to subordinate outcomes than in cases in which employees did not need clarity or did need autonomy. The findings concerning need for independence (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) have not been that unequivocal in terms of the direction of the findings. Although not defined by the authors using the substitutes, semantically, need for independence is close to need for autonomy, although maybe need for independence has a somewhat stronger social connotation, is more individually determined, and has a bit narrower domain than need for autonomy. For instance a need for independence item is: "When I have a problem I like to think it through myself without help from others" (Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993). An example of a need for autonomy item is: "I find it unattractive to have a job in which I would be told exactly how I must carry out the tasks" (Crouch & Yetton, 1988). In need for independence the emphasis is on doing something myself (i.s.o. with or through others), while in need for autonomy the emphasis is on not having regulations.

The above described studies involved a more followership centered view on the leadership process. Most of them, though, have not provided adequate definitions and operationalizations of their leadership need, nor have they delved deeper into the antecedents of these needs. Furthermore the moderated regression analyses described here have not all been carried out adequately. In most cases the odds of finding interaction effects have been low due to low sample sizes, low reliabilities and inadequate usage of the moderated regression procedure. Simple power problems could thus have prevented the researchers to find interaction effects. Theoretically, though, advantages have been made by concentrating on characteristics of the subordinates and how these characteristics may influence the leadership process. To integrate leadership needs studies described above and to provide a better test of the propositions, in the subsequent section we will define and operationalize the term 'need for leadership' we will use from now on.

NEED FOR LEADERSHIP

According to Kerr and Jermier (1978) substitutes for leadership are variables which make leadership *unnecessary*. This statement implies that one may perceive leadership to be necessary

or unnecessary. Some articles have referred to the 'need for supervision' to address this issue. Need for supervision for instance has been used to describe the relations between an organizational member and elderly or disabled patients (Clair, 1990; Lund, 1992). In these articles need for supervision refers to the (organizational) need to enforce certain behaviors regardless whether this behavior is valued by the individuals or not. Need for supervision has also been used to refer to the need for leadership within organizations (Cohen & Schneider, 1992; Ashkanasy & Gallois, 1994). Within an organization, need for leadership can be looked upon in two different ways. As an economic entity, leadership may be needed to reduce the agency costs associated with lateral communication patterns by implementing a hierarchy in the organization (Williamson, 1975). We will call this organizational need 'necessity of leadership'. Because necessity of leadership is subject to micro-economic analysis we will restrict ourselves to need for leadership.

Individuals may need leadership to fulfill their wants and provide the means to attain their own goals. According to Burns (1978), for instance, leaders induce followers to act for certain goals that represent the wants and needs of both leaders and followers. Leadership is thus inseparable from followers' needs and goals. Instead of directly fulfilling these needs, subordinates can turn to a leader to facilitate their fulfillment, making the subordinate dependent on the leader and instilling a derived need: the 'need for leadership'. By positing need for leadership we do not have the intention to add another need to the list of needs or to enter into the discussion between defenders of a multitude of (psychogenic) needs (Murray, 1938) versus those who posit only a few basic needs. Instead we regard need for leadership as a quasi-need in the sense of Lewin (1935; 1938; 1951). According to Lewin, "... needs have the character of 'organizing' behavior. One can distinguish a hierarchy of needs. One need or a combination of several needs may set up derived needs or quasi-needs." (Lewin, 1951, p. 273).

Need for leadership will thus be regarded as a quasi-need, which can be induced by the environment, i.e. the leader himself, the organization, the task, and/or the co-workers. Ryan (1995) has coined the environmental inducement of needs a 'social-contextual view' of needs. According to Ryan needs are a function of innate integrative tendencies in the personality and social circumstances supporting or halting these tendencies. Ryan combines both the orthogenetic view, which assumes needs to be based upon the phase in the development, and the situationalist view, which views needs as dependent on the circumstances. Ryan furthermore argues that there are domain-specific differences in the relative integration of the person and consequently the relative strength of his needs. "Domains and situations in which individuals find their basic psychological needs supported will be those in which integrative processes will be most evident, and in which persons will tend to experience the greatest well-being and satisfaction" (Ryan, 1995, p. 411-412). His social-contextual approach thus allows for variations in the amount of need experienced in different domains. Although we will not posit need for leadership as a fundamental need, we endorse the social-contextual approach described by Ryan. In this way need for leadership will be used here as a *social-contextual quasi-need*, which can serve as a tool for fulfilling a central need (Lewin, 1938), such as the need for competence and need for affiliation.

DOMAIN AND DEFINITION OF NEED FOR LEADERSHIP

Before deploying a definition of need for leadership, we will first have to discuss the aspects associated with need for leadership. In order to do so, we will deconstruct the underlying semantics of social-contextual quasi-needs.

Social, in the term social-contextual quasi-need, refers to the social setting in which needs flourish. According to Lewin (1951) needs of an individual are, to a very high degree, determined by social factors. Acculturation determines the growth of new needs and the decline of others. Lewin distinguishes between three types of cases where needs pertain to social relations: 1. the action of the individual may be performed for the benefit of someone else (in the manner of an altruistic act) ; 2. needs may be induced by the power field of another person or group (as a weaker person's obedience of a more powerful one); and 3. needs may be created by belonging to a group and adhering to its goals. Although Lewin makes a distinction between these three cases, he admits that they are closely interwoven. (Lewin, 1951, p. 290). Although all three types have to do with affiliative needs, only the last two seem to be present in the case of need for leadership. In the case of strong leader powers, the need of subordinates of for instance leader rewards may be strongly enhanced by the leader's way of controlling these rewards. Furthermore, in the case of a cohesive group, the make-up of the group can alleviate or enhance the need for leadership of its' members.

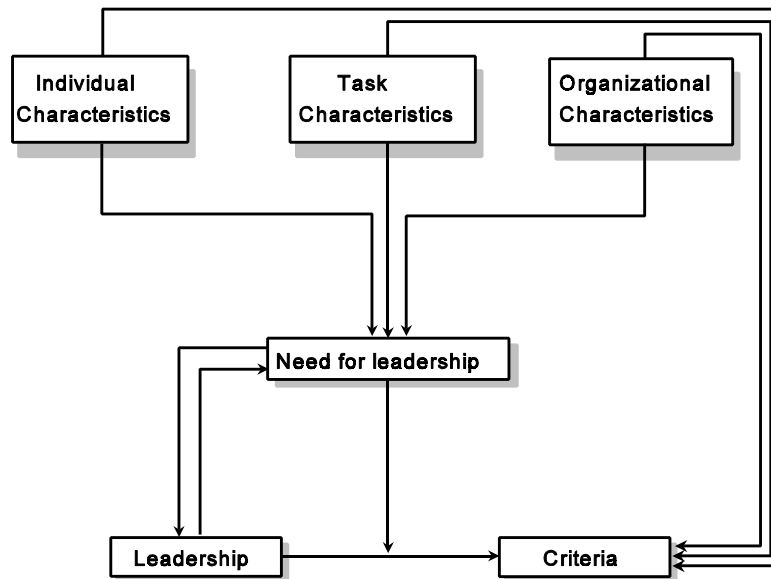
Contextual refers to environmental contingencies of the need. Ryan (1995) argues that people may experience different needs in different settings/at different times. People who find themselves self-confident and capable in one setting may well feel insecure and adroit in another setting. Need for leadership may thus be differently experienced by subordinates according to the organization they are in, the type of work they perform and their experience with the job. An experienced, professional employee who works on a separate location from his supervisor may thus experience a lot less need for leadership than his younger, freshly started colleague, who because of the complexities of his job is afraid to make crucial mistakes.

Quasi refers to the position we take with respect to needs. We will not regard need for leadership as a basic need, since there is no strong urge associated with the need to exhibit behavior to gratify the need. Need for leadership may or may not necessarily result in behavior alleviating the quasi-need. Subordinates may either take conscious action to make it clear to their leader what they want from him, may unconsciously transmit signals to their leader what they desire from their leader, or just may wait and hope that a leader acts in ways they find pleasing. Although mental activity will be related to need for leadership, overt activity of the subordinate towards his leader, as well as the behavior of the leader exhibited towards the subordinate, may thus be relatively independent from the subordinate's need for leadership. On the other hand, the underlying need for security, need for independence or need for recognition (Murray, 1938) may show themselves through an augmented action on the part of the subordinate to attract the supervisor's attention and to ask for help, support or compliments. In most of the cases these subordinate's demands will be followed by the behavior asked for, resulting in a reciprocity between need for leadership and leader behavior.

Although need for leadership itself may thus not result in observable behavior on the part of the subordinate, the underlying (stronger) needs may show themselves in the behavior of the subordinate, making need for leadership correlated with subordinate's and, subsequently, leader's behavior.

Need for leadership thus primarily consists of mental activity and affective feelings, which may or may not show itself through overt behavior, which is activated in social settings through acculturation and which is dependent on contextual and personal factors. We will thus define

need for leadership as *the social-contextual perception of an employee of the relevance of the leader's legitimate acts of influence towards an individual or a group of individuals.*



The acts of influence may result in the fulfillment of subordinate and/or organizational goals. Organizational goals may or may not stroke with the goals of the employee. When employees have internalized organizational goals, they may become individual goals, for which they need leadership to fulfill them. These goals may be different, though, than the ones implied in 'necessity of leadership', in which an optimum is reached at the number of leaders in an organization for which agency costs are smallest.

THE NEED FOR LEADERSHIP MODEL

Figure 3: A model of need for leadership

The need for leadership model consists of four parts, i.e. the relations between antecedents and need for leadership, the relations between the antecedents and the criteria, the relations between leadership behaviors and need for leadership and vice-versa, and the relations between need for leadership, leadership behaviors, and criteria. The complete model is shown in Figure 3. In the upper part the relations between individual, task, and organizational characteristics and need for leadership are shown. These characteristics are supposed to act as antecedents of need for leadership. For instance as a consequence of higher abilities, experience, training, and knowledge of subordinates, it is hypothesized that the need for leadership will be lower.

In the second place, next to the relations of the antecedents with need for leadership, the antecedents are supposed to act as predictors of the criteria in the model. Criteria consist for instance of subordinate performance, job-satisfaction, organizational commitment, and stress. Generally the substitutes for leadership have been found to have an important relation with these and other criteria (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Fetter, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, & Bommer, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995), explaining even more variance in criteria than leadership behavior has been able to.

In the third place need for leadership and leadership characteristics are supposed to be related in a reciprocal way. When subordinates start out with a job, they will need guidance and support to be able to know what they are expected to do and to make them perform adequately. Leaders most likely will reciprocate by being supportive and task-oriented. Making the job clear this will probably lead after some time to a diminished need for leadership, which will in turn diminish the leader behaviors.

Finally, need for leadership is supposed to moderate the relation between leadership behaviors and criteria, while need for leadership is a consequence of all the contingency variables making leadership behavior less powerful. The contingency variables and substitutes thus act as an antecedent to an enhanced receptiveness of the subordinate towards the leader (need for leadership), which augments the impact of the leadership behavior on criteria such as subordinate's satisfaction, commitment and performance. The advantage of the model shown in Figure 3 is the fact that need for leadership is an aggregate variable, being caused by all the situational characteristics, and thus being more likely to show a moderator effect than all the other situational characteristics. Kerr and Jermier (1978) in fact

would favor such an approach, arguing that "several substitutes, each fairly weak by itself, might combine to collectively impair hierarchical leader influence" (Kerr and Jermier, 1978, p. 399). Furthermore, given the problems of MMR when trying to find significant interaction effects, one reliable instrument measuring need for leadership will be an advantage over and above a wide range of (unreliable) substitutes in finding support for the contingency theory of leadership. Last but not least, when no effects of need for leadership on the relations between leadership behaviors and criteria are found, it can more easily be concluded that a 'best-style' approach, as supported by Blake and Mouton (1978; 1982) is the most adequate model. In the case of the substitutes, situational moderators or contingency variables, it can always be concluded that other variables will be present which do moderate the relationship between leadership and criteria.

HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the need for leadership model and the preceding theoretical discourse, the following hypotheses can be formulated. Our main general hypothesis will be as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Need for leadership is a simple (positive) moderator of the relation between different leadership characteristics/behaviors and different criteria.

Although very generally stated, this statement implies that when need for leadership is high, the relation between a certain leadership behavior or characteristic and a criterion will be stronger than when need for leadership is low. This simple (positive) moderator effect will be expected to be true for both positive and negative relations between a certain leadership behavior and a criterion.

Dealing with the upper part of Figure 3, the following hypotheses will deal with the relations between the antecedents and need for leadership. A central role in the theory of need for leadership are played by the substitutes for leadership, mainly because the need for leadership model is conceived as a reaction to the problems plaguing the substitutes and path-goal theories. Since Kerr and Jermier (1978) have argued that the substitutes should make leadership unnecessary, we will hypothesize that the substitutes for leadership will diminish the need for leadership in subordinates.

Hypothesis 2: The substitutes for leadership are negatively related to need for leadership.

METHOD

Sample

A random sample of 4523 Dutch households in Middle Brabant (a region in the southern province 'Brabant' of the Netherlands) were selected from the telephone directory and

contacted by telephone. 2000 households who had one or more job-holder willing to participate received a questionnaire, of which 958 were returned. Of the 958 respondents 291 (30.4%) were female and 665 (69.4%) were male. The average age of the respondents was 39 years (sd = 10 years). The educational level of the respondents in the sample shows sufficient variation. In the sample, 3.4% completed junior highschool, 15.4% completed highschool, 14.7% completed lower occupational training, 34.1% completed middle occupational training, 24.3%, completed higher occupational training, and 8.1%, completed University.

Compared to the national work force, the service sector is overrepresented, although the branches of trade, hotels & restaurants and banks & insurance are underrepresented (Table 1). However, there seems to be a good fit between the sample and the total population with regard to the labor force in farming, mining, industry, public utilities, construction and transport & storage. The deviations of the sample from the national population were found to be significant ($\chi^2_{(8)}=242.13$, $p<.001$). The sample deviated even more from the Middle Brabant labor force ($\chi^2_{(8)}=655.35^2$, $p<.001$), notably with respect to industry, trade, hotels & restaurants and service. The number of respondents in industry matches the national population better than the Middle Brabant population. Again, though, sufficient variation in business sector was found for the purpose of this study.

² It should be noted, though, that Peasons' χ^2 is biased when expected frequencies are lower than 1. Compared with the value of the sample of 2, we find an expected frequency of .02 in the dutch population in mining. The squared difference $(2 - .02)^2$ of 3.94 is thus transformed to a χ^2 -value of 252.3 after division through .02, which is already more than ten times the critical ($p < .01$; $df=8$) χ^2 -value!

Table 1: Comparison of the labor force in the Netherlands, (Middle) North Brabant and the sample

	National○		Middle Brabant□		Sample	
	n(*1000)	%	n	%	n	%
<i>Type of business</i>						
Farming	88	1.6	853	0.7	25	2.6
Mining	10	0.2	2	0.0	2	0.2
Industry	996	18.0	33966	27.9	161	16.9
Public utilities	45	0.8	605	0.5	20	2.1
Construction	331	6.0	9240	7.6	88	9.3
Trade/Hotels/Restaurants	1086	19.6	25200	20.7	80	8.4
Transport & Storage	370	6.7	6155	5.0	34	3.6
Banks & Insurance	707	12.8	10729	8.8	50	5.3
Service	1906	34.4	35114	28.8	491	51.6
Total	5539	100.0	121864	100.0	951	100.0

○ National statistics provided by the Central Office of Statistics, the Netherlands (CBS, march 1995)

□ Middle Brabant statistics provided by the Cooperation Middle Brabant (SMB, march 1995)

A principal component analysis on the 17 the need for leadership items resulted in three factors with an eigenvalue > 1.0 explaining 60.2% of the variance. The items in the varimax rotated factors did not match the theoretical distinction, each factor containing items from all three scales. Although the cronbach alpha's of the theoretical scales were high (.88, .81 and .79 respectively) it was decided to use one scale to measure need for leadership. Cronbach alpha of the need for leadership scale is .93. The validity of the need for leadership was ascertained through correlational analysis using Martin's (1983) change in supervision items. Results, reported in De Vries (1995), confirm the construct validity of the need for leadership scale.

Measures

Need for leadership is defined in terms of the functions the leader fulfils vis à vis the employee. The scale measuring need for leadership is based on statements of the following type: "I need my leader...". An example of an item is: "I need my leader to help solve problems". The scale consists of 17 items measuring different aspects of need for leadership. The 17 items were derived from the literature concerning roles of a leader (Quinn, 1988) and the managerial practices (Yukl, 1994). In the typology of this study, a distinction was made between people-oriented leadership needs, problem-oriented leadership needs and production-oriented leadership needs. The following 6 people-oriented leadership needs were distinguished: motivating, inspiring, team building, conflict management, consideration and recognizing & rewarding. The following 5 problem-oriented leadership needs were distinguished: knowledge transfer, information dissemination, problem solving, giving feedback, and correcting mistakes. For production-oriented leadership needs we used the following 6 aspects: goal setting, decision making, planning & organizing, coordinating,

external contacts and upward influence. We did not, though, expect these dimensions to be independent.

This study used the revised *substitutes for leadership* scales (Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994) which contains 74 items in 13 scales. The main reason for the revision of the substitutes for leadership was the unreliability of some of the scales measuring substitutes. Williams, Podsakoff, Todor, Huber, Howell and Dorfman (Williams, Podsakoff, Todor, Huber, & et-al, 1988) found in a review of 11 different samples that 9 of the 13 subscales developed by Kerr and Jermier (1978) had median reliabilities below .62. The mean reliability of the 13 revised substitutes subscales developed by Podsakoff et al. (1993) was .81 with a range of .64 to .93. Although Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) claim that a reduced version containing 41 items reflects the substitutes for leadership as well as the revised version, to ensure optimal reliability, the revised version was used. The translation of the items and the item-analyses are reported in De Vries (1995). The cronbach alpha's of the substitute subscales ranged from .61 to .89 with a mean of .78 which is slightly lower than the mean reliability reported by Podsakoff et al. (1993).

The questionnaire contained the two *leadership* scales derived from the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1953) which has been translated in Dutch by Syroit (1979). Syroit (1979) reports split-half reliabilities of .95 for the Dutch version of Consideration and .85 for Initiating structure. Three other leadership instruments were used in this questionnaire: Leader expertise (Podsakoff, Todor, & Schuler, 1983), Charismatic leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1989; den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1994) and Leader's encouragement of self-management (Manz & Sims, 1987). Leader expertise in the version developed by Podsakoff, Todor, and Schuler (1983) contained three items with an internal consistency reliability of .80. Two items were added to the three items to ensure a sufficient reliability. The scale measuring Charismatic leadership is a reduced version of Bass' (1985) scale measuring transformational leadership. Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman's (1994) 18-item version of this scale had a cronbach alpha of .95. Eleven items with high item-total correlations were selected for the charismatic leadership scale. Leader's encouragement of self-management is a shortened version of the six-scale, 22-items version of Manz and Sims (1987). Because the factor-analysis conducted by Manz and Sims showed one strong first factor, which explained 48.7% of the variance in the 22-items (seven times the variance explained in the second factor), we decided to take six, from each scale one semantically most representative, items.

The following criteria were part of the study: General satisfaction, Commitment, Stress, Self-rated performance, and Role conflict. *General satisfaction* was measured using an 11-item adapted version of the Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) scale measuring overall satisfaction. *Commitment* was measured using a 6-item scale reflecting proudness with the company, tendency to leave (reversed) and feeling at home at the company (Taillieu, Van der Wielen, De Vries, & Dikschei, 1993; Taillieu & De Vries, 1995). *Stress* was measured using a 7-item scale reflecting hurried feelings, feeling of having to handle things on one's own, feelings of pressure, feelings of burden on one's health (Taillieu, Van der Wielen, De Vries, & Dikschei, 1993; Taillieu & De Vries, 1995). *Self-rated performance* was measured using a scale by

Roe, Dienes, Ten Horn and Zinovieva (1995) containing 8 items. *Role-conflict* was measured using the instrument developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970).

RESULTS

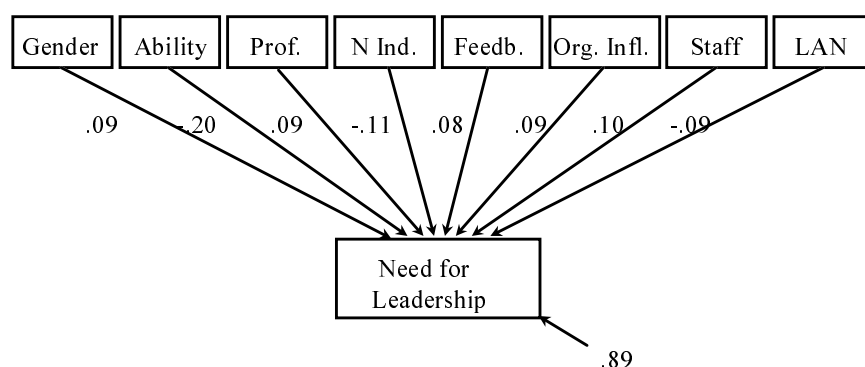
Both in the substitutes for leadership model and in the model of need for leadership it is assumed that moderator effects are present. In the substitutes for leadership model the substitutes are supposed to directly influence the relation between leadership and criteria, while in the need for leadership model need for leadership is supposed to be influenced by the substitutes on the one hand and influencing the relation between leadership and criteria on the other hand. Therefore we conducted separate hierarchical Moderated Multiple Regressions (MMR's) for both models. In both cases leadership was entered first followed by the substitute or need for leadership and the interaction effect between the leadership construct and the substitute/need for leadership. Both leadership and substitute/need for leadership constructs were standardized before multiplication took place in order to form an interaction term.

In a total of 53 of the possible 325 cases (16.3%) a significant interaction effect was found with the substitutes. This is a bit more than chance but far less than the results found with need for leadership, in which 13 of 25 cases (52%) a significant interaction effect was found. Even worse, in only 5 out of the 325 cases (1.5%) with the substitutes the effect was in the predicted direction. For instance it was found that ability, experience, training, and knowledge (Ability) is a substitute of the (positive) relation between task-oriented leadership and organizational commitment. Ability is positively related to commitment and its interaction with task-oriented leadership is negative. Thus employees with strong abilities and much experience show more commitment to the organization and are characterized by a reduced relation between task-oriented leadership and commitment in comparison with employees who have less abilities and experience. In contrast with the meager results of the substitutes for leadership, need for leadership was found to moderate the relation between leadership and criteria in the predicted direction in all cases. Therefore, although not verified for all leadership behaviors in combination with all criteria, hypothesis 1 can be considered to be sustained by this research.

A simple regression procedure was conducted for hypothesis 2. Next to the substitutes we added gender and the presence of a Local Area Network (LAN) as independent variables of need for leadership. We hypothesized that men are more likely to present themselves as low on need for leadership as women. Furthermore with the presence of a LAN, subordinates may find themselves needing a leader to a lesser degree (because they can communicate directly with anybody with the experience in the company for certain problems) than subordinates without a LAN. The findings of the substitutes, gender and the LAN are presented in Figure 4.

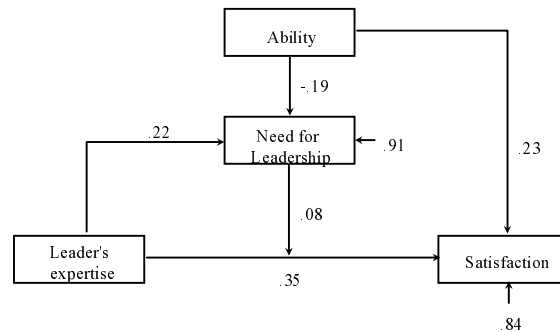
Only two of the substitutes behave in the expected direction. Ability, experience, training and knowledge (Ability) and Need for independence (N Ind.) are found to reduce the need for leadership of subordinates. Opposite to expectations we found Professional orientation (Prof.), Task-provided feedback concerning accomplishments (Feedb.), Organizational inflexibility (Org. Infl.) and Advisory and staff support (Staff) to be positively related to need for leadership. Conceptually the substitutes do not have a relation with need for leadership as would be suspected by the substitutes for leadership theory. Gender (1=male, 2=female) and LAN (1=no LAN, 2=LAN) relate to need for leadership in the expected direction. Women describe themselves as having more need for leadership than men. In a company with a LAN, employees need their leader less than in companies without a LAN.

Figure 4: The relation of need for leadership with substitutes, gender and LAN



We conducted several path analyses to show the relations of the antecedents, need for leadership, leadership, and criteria. The structural models are provided in Figures 5 through 8. In Figure 5 we see that ability is negatively related to need for leadership, in its turn moderating the relation of leader's expertise with satisfaction. With high need for leadership the relation between leader's expertise and satisfaction is more pronounced than with low need for leadership. Ability, furthermore is positively related to satisfaction.

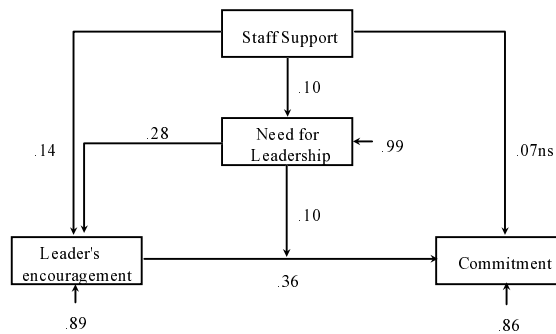
Figure 5: An example of the need for leadership model with Ability, experience, training, and knowledge, Leader's expertise and Job satisfaction (n=738)



$\chi^2=3.43$ (df=2, p=.18), CN=1981, GFI=1.00, AGFI=.99, NFI=.98, CFI=.99

In Figure 6 staff support is shown to be positively related to need for leadership and leader's encouragement of self-management. Staff support is not related to more organizational commitment of the employee. With higher need for leadership leader's encouragement is stronger and is also more positively related to organizational commitment.

Figure 6: An example of the need for leadership model with Advisory and staff support), Leader's encouragement of self-management and Organizational commitment (n=748)



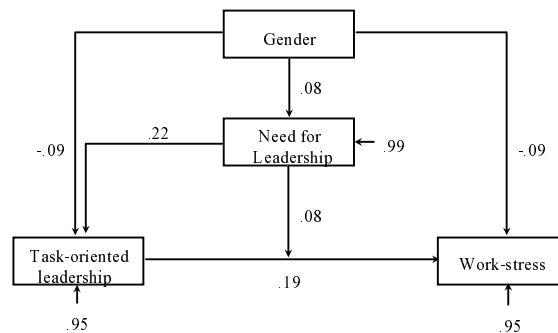
$\chi^2=13.43$ (df=3, p=.004), CN=632, GFI=.99, AGFI=.96, NFI=.94, CFI=.95

In Figure 7 the relations between gender, need for leadership and the relation between task-oriented leadership and work-stress are presented. Women show more need for leadership and less work-stress than men. Furthermore either women perceive their leader's as less task-oriented or leaders are less task-oriented towards women. Again, with higher need for leadership, task-oriented leadership is more strongly related to work-stress.

In Figure 8 it is shown that need for independence is negatively related to need for leadership and positively to role-conflict. Furthermore charismatic leadership is positively related to

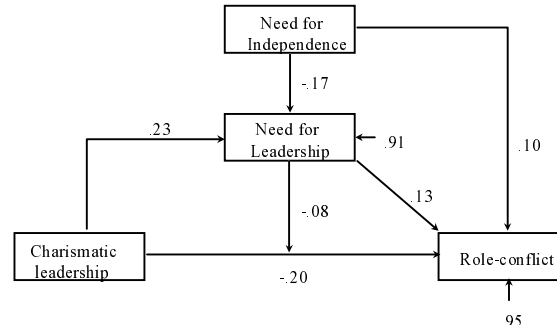
need for leadership and need for leadership strengthens the relation between charismatic leadership and role-conflict. Need for leadership also has a direct effect on role-conflict. Subordinates with a high need for leadership show more role-conflict than subordinates with a low need for leadership.

Figure 7: An example of the need for leadership model with Gender (male=1, female=2), Task-oriented leadership and Work-stress (n=749)



$X^2=20.71$ (df=3, $p<.001$), CN=411, GFI=.99, AGFI=.95, NFI=.81, CFI=.82

Figure 8: An example of the need for leadership model with Need for independence, Charismatic leadership and Role conflict (n=723)



$X^2=0.20$ (df=1, $p=.65$), CN=23444, GFI=1.00, AGFI=1.00, NFI=1.00, CFI=1.00

CONCLUSIONS

Leadership-centered theories and follower-centered theories offer two sides of the coin of leadership. Leadership-centered studies focus on the effectiveness of leadership, while followership-centered studies focus on the characteristics and needs of subordinates vis-a-vis leadership. In this study need for leadership is conceptualized and operationalized using 17 items. In contrast with the substitutes for leadership theory, need for leadership moderates the relation between leadership and criteria more often. In all cases in which a moderator effect was found high need for leadership was associated with a stronger relation between

leadership and the criteria. Only two of the substitutes, ability and need for independence, were negatively related to need for leadership. Contrary expectations, professional orientation, feedback, organizational inflexibility and staff support were positively related to need for leadership. Conceptually the substitutes for leadership theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) thus seems to be incorrect in arguing that these variables make leadership less necessary. It might for instance be argued that more coordination is needed of a leader when the organization is inflexible and more staff support is offered. Professionals may also need leadership to fulfil the management and coordinative functions they are not able to provide themselves. Mintzberg (1993) for instance argues that by concentrating on the content of their work, professionals necessarily have less time for coordination problems, 'delegating' this to their superiors who then also obtain some power over substantial issues. In jobs in which much feedback is present, it may be true that feedback is also very necessary, because failures can for instance cause costly reparations. To provide redundancy, leadership feedback may be needed to a larger extent when much feedback is already present. (Note: on an individual level the substitutes theory may be correct (when more feedback is provided for the same job, leadership feedback may be less necessary), while on a group-level this proves to be incorrect.)

In this study we also found gender and LAN to be related to need for leadership. Women showed a higher need for leadership and employees in a company with a LAN showed lower need for leadership. The effects of LAN may be due to a lateralization process caused by the informatization of companies. According to Dawson (1988) through changes in organizational and work processes, managerial and supervision processes are affected. LAN's may affect the structure of organizations, reducing hierarchical layers by decreasing the role of middle manager as a service hatch for information and thus making organizations more and more lateral or horizontal (Rosenberg, 1992; Dopson & Stewart, 1993; Tapscott & Caston, 1993). In this way leadership may become less necessary.

Need for leadership thus proves to be an interesting topic of research. In other papers we have provided insight in the contents of the needs of subordinates (De Vries & Taillieu, 1995). In future research the antecedents of need for leadership have to be further explored. In this research, substitutes, gender and LAN only explained 11% of the variance in need for leadership. It thus remains to be seen what variables are most important in predicting this, when looking from a leadership perspective, important need.

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